ed costs  $C_i$ , i = 1,...,k. The unit comes from one of the two populations  $H_1$  and  $H_2$ , and it is desired to select a population (from

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20 Abstract (continued)

these two) from which the unit is supposed to belong to, on the basis of the measurements  $x_1, x_2, \ldots$ . Given the loss incurred by selecting population  $H_i$  when in fact it belongs to  $H_j$ , the prior probability  $p_i$  of  $H_i$  (i = 1,2), and assuming that  $H_i$  has the normal distribution  $N(\mu_i, V)$ , i = 1,2, we derive the sequential Bayesian solution of the discrimination problem when  $\mu_i$ ,  $\mu_2$  and V are known. When  $\mu_i$ , V are unknown and must be estimated, we propose a solution which is asymptotic Bayesian with exponential convergence rate.

# Center for Multivariate Analysis University of Pittsburgh



# DISCRIMINATION ANALYSIS WHEN THE VARIATES ARE GROUPED AND OBSERVED IN SEQUENTIAL ORDER\*

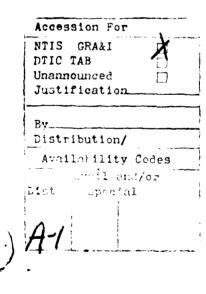
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# DISCRIMINATION ANALYSIS WHEN THE VARIATES ARE GROUPED AND OBSERVED IN SEQUENTIAL ORDER\*

Yuehua Wu

ADCTDAC

Suppose that measurements  $x_1 = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k$ , can be taken on a unit sequentially in that order at the prescribed costs  $C_i$ ,  $i = 1, \dots, k$ . The unit comes from one of the two populations  $H_i$  and  $H_2$ , and it is desired to select a population (from these two) from which the unit is supposed to belong to, on the basis of the measurements  $x_1, x_2, \dots$ . Given the loss incurred by selecting population  $H_i$  when in fact it belongs to  $H_i$ , the prior probability  $p_i$  of  $H_i$  (i = 1,2), and assuming that  $H_i$  has the normal distribution  $N(x_i, V)$ , i = 1,2, we derive the sequential Bayesian solution of the discrimination problem when  $x_1, x_2, \dots$  and  $x_i, x_i \in \mathbb{R}$  and  $x_i \in \mathbb{R}$ 

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#### FORMULATION OF THE PROBLEM

Let  $H_1$ ,  $H_2$  be two populations. We shall draw an individual  $\alpha$  randomly from one of them. The problem is to select a population from which  $\, lpha \,$  is most likely to come. The selection is based upon some measurements of variates (physical, chemical, biological, etc.) taken on the individual lpha, and the decision is reached sequentially in the following manner. First, the variates are divided into k groups with a definite preference order. At the start we can make a decision or take measurements  $x_1$  of the first group. We may choose to stop here and make a decision based on  $x_1$ , or we can go further and proceed to take measurements  $x_2$  belonging to the second group. In general, after making observations on the first i groups and recording the results  $x_1, \ldots, x_i$ , we may decide to terminate observation and make a decision ( a belongs to  $H_1$  or  $H_2$ ), or we can go a step further and proceed to observe the (i+1)-th group. Since there are only k groups of measurements, a final decision must be made after k stages of observation. We suppose that the cost of observing the i-th group is a constant  $C_i$ , i = 1,...,k. These constants do not depend upon the results  $x_1, ..., x_k$ of observations on these k groups of measurements.

The motivation behind such a scheme is obvious: Usually we have some prior knowledge concerning the importance of various variates in the discrimination of an individual. The gain of reliability in discrimination through observing more variates must be weighted with the cost we pay in obtaining the measurements of these variates (see Wald (1947, 1950)).

Denote  $X_{(i)} = (X_1, ..., X_i)^i$ , i = 1, ..., k. Assume that under  $H_j$ , the distribution of  $X_{(i)}$  is normal  $N(\mu_{j(i)}, V_{(i)})$  where

$$\mu_{j(i)} = \begin{pmatrix} \nu_{j1} \\ \vdots \\ \nu_{ji} \end{pmatrix}, \quad j = 1,2; \qquad \nu_{(i)} = \begin{pmatrix} \nu_{11} & \nu_{12} & \cdots & \nu_{1i} \\ \nu_{21} & \nu_{22} & \cdots & \nu_{2i} \\ \vdots & \ddots & \ddots & \ddots \\ \nu_{i1} & \nu_{i2} & \cdots & \nu_{ii} \end{pmatrix}.$$

Denote

$$U_{(i)} = (V_{i+1,1}, V_{i+1,2}, \dots, V_{i+1,i}), \quad i = 1,2,\dots,k-1$$
 
$$W_i = V_{ii} - U_{(i-1)}V_{(i-1)}^{-1}U_{(i-1)}', \quad i = 2,3,\dots,k; \ W_1 = V_{11}$$
 
$$t_{ji}(x_{(i)}) = \mu_{j,i+1} + U_{(i)}V_{(i)}^{-1}(x_{(i)} - \mu_{j(i)}), \quad i = 1,\dots,k-1; \ j = 1,2.$$

If  $a \in H_r$ , the loss incurred by discriminating a into  $H_s$  is  $\ell_{rs}$ , r,s=1,2. We shall assume that  $\ell_{22} < \ell_{21}$ ,  $\ell_{11} < \ell_{12}$ . The prior probabilities of  $H_1$  and  $H_2$  are  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$ ,  $0 < p_1 < 1$ ,  $p_1 + p_2 = 1$ , respectively.

The problem is to find out the Bayes discrimination under the circumstances described above.

### 2. THE FORM OF BAYESIAN SOLUTION

In the sequel we use  $f(\cdot, v, \Sigma)$  to denote the density function of  $N(v, \Sigma)$ . As is well known, if  $X_{(k)} = x_{(k)}$  has been observed, Bayesian discrimination rule should be

$$\begin{cases} \frac{f(x_{(k)}, \mu_{2(k)}, V_{(k)})}{f(x_{(k)}, \mu_{1(k)}, V_{(k)})} \leq \frac{p_{1}(\ell_{11} - \ell_{12})}{p_{2}(\ell_{22} - \ell_{21})}, & \text{accept } H_{1} \\ \frac{f(x_{(k)}, \mu_{2(k)}, V_{(k)})}{f(x_{(k)}, \mu_{1(k)}, V_{(k)})} > \frac{p_{1}(\ell_{11} - \ell_{12})}{p_{2}(\ell_{22} - \ell_{21})}, & \text{accept } H_{2}. \end{cases}$$
(1)

The rule can be written as: When

$$\begin{aligned} & \left(t_{2,k-1}^{(x)}(x_{(k-1)}) - t_{1,k-1}^{(x)}(x_{(k-1)})\right)'W_{k}^{-1}x_{k} \\ & \leq \frac{1}{2} \left[t_{2,k-1}^{(x)}(x_{(k-1)})W_{k}^{-1}t_{2,k-1}^{(x)}(x_{(k-1)}) - t_{1,k-1}^{(x)}(x_{(k-1)})W_{k}^{-1}t_{1,k-1}^{(x)}(x_{(k-1)})\right] \\ & + \frac{1}{2} \left[\left(x_{(k-1)} - \mu_{2(k-1)}\right)'V_{(k-1)}^{-1}(x_{(k-1)} - \mu_{2(k-1)}) - \left(x_{(k-1)} - \mu_{1(k-1)}\right)'V_{(k-1)}^{-1}(x_{(k-1)} - \mu_{1(k-1)})\right] \\ & - \left(x_{(k-1)} - \mu_{1(k-1)}\right)'V_{(k-1)}^{-1}(x_{(k-1)} - \mu_{1(k-1)})\right] \\ & + \log[p_{1}(x_{11} - x_{12})/p_{2}(x_{22} - x_{21})]. \end{aligned}$$

We accept  $H_1$ , otherwise we accept  $H_2$ .

Denote

$$\begin{split} & \mathsf{D}_{\mathbf{i}} = \mathsf{W}_{\mathbf{i}+\mathbf{1}}^{-1} \big( \mathsf{t}_{2\mathbf{i}}(\mathsf{x}_{(\mathbf{i})}) - \mathsf{t}_{\mathbf{1}\mathbf{i}}(\mathsf{x}_{(\mathbf{i})}) \big) = \mathsf{W}_{\mathbf{i}+\mathbf{1}}^{-1} \{ \mathsf{\mu}_{2,\mathbf{i}+\mathbf{1}} - \mathsf{\mu}_{\mathbf{1},\mathbf{i}+\mathbf{1}} + \mathsf{U}_{(\mathbf{i})} \mathsf{V}_{(\mathbf{i})}^{-1} (\mathsf{\mu}_{\mathbf{1}(\mathbf{i})} - \mathsf{\mu}_{2(\mathbf{i})}) \} \\ & \mathsf{q}_{\mathbf{i}} = \frac{1}{2} \big[ \mathsf{t}_{2,\mathbf{i}}^{'} (\mathsf{x}_{(\mathbf{i})}) \mathsf{W}_{\mathbf{i}+\mathbf{1}}^{-1} \mathsf{t}_{2,\mathbf{i}} (\mathsf{x}_{(\mathbf{i})}) - \mathsf{t}_{\mathbf{1},\mathbf{i}}^{'} (\mathsf{x}_{(\mathbf{i})}) \mathsf{W}_{\mathbf{i}+\mathbf{1}}^{-1} \mathsf{t}_{\mathbf{1},\mathbf{i}} (\mathsf{x}_{(\mathbf{i})}) \big] \\ & + \frac{1}{2} \big[ (\mathsf{x}_{(\mathbf{i})} - \mathsf{\mu}_{2(\mathbf{i})}) \, \mathsf{V}_{\mathbf{i}}^{-1} (\mathsf{x}_{(\mathbf{i})} - \mathsf{\mu}_{2(\mathbf{i})}) - (\mathsf{x}_{(\mathbf{i})} - \mathsf{\mu}_{\mathbf{1}(\mathbf{i})}) \, \mathsf{V}_{\mathbf{i}}^{-1} (\mathsf{x}_{(\mathbf{i})} - \mathsf{\mu}_{\mathbf{1}(\mathbf{i})}) \big] \\ & + \mathsf{log} \big[ \mathsf{p}_{\mathbf{1}} (\mathsf{x}_{\mathbf{1}\mathbf{1}} - \mathsf{x}_{\mathbf{1}\mathbf{2}}) / \mathsf{p}_{\mathbf{2}} (\mathsf{x}_{\mathbf{2}\mathbf{2}} - \mathsf{x}_{\mathbf{2}\mathbf{1}}) \big]. \end{split}$$

Noticing that under  $X_{(k-1)} = x_{(k-1)}$ , the conditional distribution of  $X_{(k)}$  is  $N(t_{j,k-1}(x_{(k-1)}), W_k)$ , we see that the probability of fulfilling the inequality (2) is  $m_{j,k-1}$  under  $H_j$ , where

$$m_{j,i} = \Phi\{(q_i - D_i't_{ji}(x_{(i)})) / D_iW_{i+1}D_i\}.$$

Therefore, if we have already observed  $X_{(k-1)} = x_{(k-1)}$ , then under this condition, the continuation of observing  $X_{(k)}$  followed by a decision according to the rule (1) gives a conditional risk

$$L_{3} = L_{3,k-1} = \frac{1}{\Delta_{k-1}} \{ \ell_{11}^{m_{1,k-1}} p_{1}^{f(x_{(k-1)}, \mu_{1(k-1)}, V_{(k-1)})} + \ell_{21}^{m_{2,k-1}} p_{2}^{f(x_{(k-1)}, \mu_{2(k-1)}, V_{(k-1)})} + \ell_{12}^{(1-m_{1,k-1})} p_{1}^{f(x_{(k-1)}, \mu_{1(k-1)}, V_{(k-1)})} + \ell_{22}^{(1-m_{2,k-1})} p_{2}^{f(x_{(k-1)}, \mu_{2(k-1)}, V_{(k-1)})} + \ell_{1}^{f(x_{2,k-1})} p_{2}^{f(x_{(k-1)}, \mu_{2(k-1)}, V_{(k-1)})}$$

$$(3)$$

On the other hand, if we make a decision without observing  $\boldsymbol{x}_k$ , then the posterior risk is

$$L_{1} = L_{1,k-1} = \frac{1}{\Delta_{k-1}} \{ p_{1}f(x_{(k-1)}, \mu_{1(k-k)}, V_{(k-1)}) \ell_{11} + p_{2}f(x_{(k-1)}, \mu_{2(k-1)}, V_{(k-1)}) \ell_{21} \} + c_{1} + c_{2} + \dots + c_{k-1}$$
(4)

when we classify the individual a into  $H_1$ ,

$$L_{2} = L_{2,k-1} = \frac{1}{\Delta_{k-1}} \{ p_{1}f(x_{(k-1)}, \mu_{1(k-1)}, V_{(k-1)})^{\ell} \}_{21}$$

$$+ p_{2}f(x_{(k-1)}, \mu_{2(k-1)}, V_{(k-1)})^{\ell} \}_{22} \}_{22}$$

$$+ C_{1} + C_{2} + \dots + C_{k-1}$$
(5)

when we classify  $\alpha$  into  $H_2$ . In (3)-(5), the definition of  $\Delta_{k-1}$  is

$$\Delta_{i} = p_{1}f(x_{(i)}, \mu_{1(i)}, V_{(i)}) + p_{2}f(x_{(i)}, \mu_{2(i)}, V_{(i)}). \tag{6}$$

Denote by  $L_{i_0}$  the minimum value of  $L_1$ ,  $L_2$  and  $L_3$ . If  $i_0$  = 1 or 2, we classify the individual  $\alpha$  into  $H_1$  or  $H_2$ , respectively. Otherwise, we go on observing  $X_k$ , and make the final decision according to (1).

Let  $G_{k-1}(x_{(k-1)}) = \min(L_1, L_2, L_3)$ . It is the minimum posterior risk we can get based on having observed  $X_{(k-1)}$  (stop here or continue to observe). In general, for any i, we define  $G_i(x_{(i)})$  as the minimum posterior risk we can get based on having observed  $x_{(i)}$  (stop here or continue to observe). In the following we define  $G_i(x_{(i)})$  by induction. Suppose that we have already defined  $G_i(x_{(i)})$ ,  $i = k-1, k-2, \ldots, k-\ell$ , and  $X_{(k-\ell-1)} = x_{(k-\ell-1)}$  has been observed. If we stop observing and classify a into  $H_1$  or  $H_2$ , then

the posterior risk is

$$L_{1} = L_{1,k-\ell-1} = \frac{1}{\Delta_{k-\ell-1}} \{ p_{1}f(x_{(k-\ell-1)}, \mu_{1(k-\ell-1)}, V_{(k-\ell-1)}^{\ell}) \} + p_{2}f(x_{(k-\ell-1)}, \mu_{2(k-\ell-1)}, V_{(k-\ell-1)}^{\ell}) \} + c_{1} + c_{2} + \dots + c_{k-\ell-1}$$

or

$$L_{2} = L_{2,k-\ell-1} = \frac{1}{\Delta_{k-\ell-1}} \{ p_{1}f(x_{(k-\ell-1)}, \mu_{1(k-\ell-1)}, V_{(k-\ell-1)})^{\ell} \}_{12}$$

$$+ p_{2}f(x_{(k-\ell-1)}, \mu_{2(k-\ell-1)}, V_{(k-\ell-1)})^{\ell} \}_{22}$$

$$+ c_{1} + c_{2} + \dots + c_{k-\ell-1},$$

respectively. If we go on observing  $X_{k-\ell}$ , then the minimum risk we can get is  $G_{k-\ell}(x_{(k-\ell-1)}, X_{k-\ell})$ , according to the definition of  $G_{k-\ell}(x_{(k-\ell-1)})$ . Hence in this case the minimum posterior risk is

$$L_{3} = L_{3,k-2-1} = \frac{1}{\Delta_{k-2-1}} \{ p_{1}f(x_{(k-2-1)}, \mu_{1(k-2-1)}, V_{(k-2-1)}) \\ = \frac{1}{\Delta_{k-2-1}} \{ p_{1}f(x_{(k-2-1)}, \mu_{1(k-2-1)}, V_{(k-2-1)}) \\ + \frac{1}{\Delta_{k-2-1}} \{ p_{$$

Summing up, we get

$$G_{k-\ell-1}(x_{(k-\ell-1)}) = \min(L_1, L_2, L_3).$$

In this way we complete the induction process of defining  $G_i(x_{(i)})$ , i = 1,...,k-1. Finally, we define

$$G_0 = \min(L_{10}, L_{20}, L_{30})$$
 with  $L_{10} = p_1 \ell_{11} + p_2 \ell_{21}$ ,  $L_{20} = p_1 \ell_{12} + p_2 \ell_{22}$ ,  $L_{30} = EG_1(X_{(i)})$ .

Based upon the quantities just defined, we now introduce the following

discrimination rule:

- $i^{\circ}$ . First, determine i such that  $L_{i0} = G_{0}$ . If i = 1 or 2, then we do not make any observation and classify the individual into  $H_{1}$  or  $H_{2}$ , respectively. Otherwise, proceed to  $2^{\circ}$ .
  - 2°. Determine the following three sets:

$$A_{11} = \{x_1: L_{11} \le L_{21}, L_{11} \le L_{31}\}$$

$$A_{21} = \{x_1: L_{11} > L_{21}, L_{31} \ge L_{21}\}$$

$$A_{31} = \{x_1: L_{11} > L_{31}, L_{21} > L_{31}\}$$

and observe  $X_1 = x_1$ . If  $x_1 \in A_{j1}$  for j = 1,2, then we stop observation, and classify the individual into  $H_1$  or  $H_2$ , respectively. Otherwise, proceed to  $3^{\circ}$ .

 $3^{\circ}$ . In general, if we have not made a final decision after observing  $x_{(i)}$ , then determine the following three sets:

$$A_{1,i+1} = \{x_{i+1} : L_{1,i+1} \le L_{2,i+1}, L_{1,i+1} \le L_{3,i+1}\}$$

$$A_{2,i+1} = \{x_{i+1} : L_{1,i+1} > L_{2,i+1}, L_{3,i+1} \ge L_{2,i+1}\}$$

$$A_{3,i+1} = \{x_{i+1} : L_{1,i+1} > L_{3,i+1}, L_{2,i+1} > L_{3,i+1}\}$$

and observe  $X_{i+1} = x_{i+1}$ . If  $x_{i+1} \in A_{j,i+1}$  for j = 1,2, then we stop observation and classify the individual into  $H_1$  or  $H_2$ , respectively. Otherwise, we return to the beginning of  $3^\circ$  with i changed to i + 1.

## 3. PROOF OF BAYESIAN PROPERTY OF THE RULE

Any sequential discrimination rule can be expressed in the form  $(T,\delta)$ , where T is "stopping time", i.e., T takes  $0, 1, 2, \ldots, k$  as its value. Either  $T \equiv 0$  and then  $\delta \equiv H_1$  or  $\delta \equiv H_2$ , or T does not take the value 0. In this case for any  $i \geq 1$ , the set  $\{x_{(k)} = T(x_{(k)}) \leq i\}$  has the form  $A_i \times R^i$ ,

where  $A_i$  is a Borel set in  $x_{(i)}$  and  $d_i$  is the sum of dimensions of  $x_{i+1}$ , ...,  $x_k$ ,  $\delta(x_{(T)})$  assumes the "values"  $H_1$  or  $H_2$ , and  $\{x_{(T)}: \delta(x_{(T)}) = H_1\}$  is a Borel set in space  $x_{(T)}$ . The Bayes risk of such a rule  $(T, \delta)$  is

$$B(T,\delta) = p_1 E_1 \ell_1, \delta(X_{(T)}) + p_2 E_2 \ell_2, \delta(X_{(T)}).$$

Denoting by  $(T^*, 8^*)$  the discrimination rule given in Section 2, we have the following theorem:

THEOREM 1. For any  $(T,\delta)$ , we have

$$B(T,\delta) \geq B(T^*,\delta^*). \tag{7}$$

Proof. Obviously,  $B(T,\delta) \geq B(T^*,\delta^*)$  for any  $(T,\delta)$  when  $T^*=0$ . In the following we assume that  $k \geq 1$ . It is trivial to verify that the conclusion of the theorem is true when k=1. For the general case, use the method of induction. Suppose that the conclusion of Theorem 1 is true when k is replaced by k-1. We have only to show that for any  $x_1$ , the conditional risk (denoted by  $R(T,\delta|x_1)$ ) of discrimination  $(T,\delta)$  under the conditional risk  $X_1=x_1$  is observed, is always greater than or equal to the conditional risk  $R(T^*,\delta^*|x_1)$  of discrimination  $(T^*,\delta^*)$ . Three cases are in order:

 $1^{\circ}$ . According to (T,3), we should go on observing  $X_2$ .

Since (after having ovserved  $X_1$ ) there are at most k-1 groups of measurements that may be observed, according to the induction assumption that the theorem holds for k-1 groups of observations, if we continue to take observations according to the rule of  $(T^*,\delta^*)$  after having gotten  $X_1=x_1$ , then the Bayes risk (which is  $L_{31}$  under the previous notations) we get would not be greater than  $R(T,\delta|x_1)$ . But if we use the rule  $(T^*,\delta^*)$ , then, after having observed  $X_1=x_1$ , the minimum posterior risk we can get is  $G_1(x_{\{1\}})=\min(L_{11},L_{21},L_{31})$ . Therefore

$$R(T^*,\delta^*|x_1) \leq R(T,\delta|x_1). \tag{8}$$

 $2^{\circ}$ . According to  $(T,\delta)$ , after having observes  $X_1 = x_1$ , we classify a into  $H_1$ .

Now R(T,
$$\delta$$
|x<sub>1</sub>) = L<sub>11</sub>. But according to (T\*, $\delta$ \*), we have 
$$R(T*,\delta*|x_1) = G_1(x_{(1)}) \le L_{11}.$$

So (8) is still true.

 $3^{\circ}$ . According to (T, $\delta$ ), after having observed X<sub>1</sub> = x<sub>1</sub>, we classify a into H<sub>2</sub>.

This case is similar to  $2^{\circ}$ .

Therefore, we have shown that (8) is always true, and the theorem is proved.

## 4. DETAILED COMPUTATION PROCEDURE FOR THE CASE OF k = 2

When  $k \le 2$ , there are no computation difficulties in the application of the method. When k > 2,  $L_{3i}$  with  $i \le k - 2$  is not easy to compute, and the application of the method is quite involved.

A very important case in practice is k = 2. For the case, we detail the compution procedure as follows:

- 1°. Compute  $W_2 = V_{22} V_{21}V_{11}^{-1}V_{12}$ .
- 2°. Denote by  $x_1$  the observation of the first group. Calculate  $t_j(x_1) = \mu_{j2} + V_{21}V_{11}^{-1}(x_1 \mu_{j1}), \quad j = 1, 2.$
- 3°. Compute  $D = W_2^{-1} (\mu_{22} \mu_{12} + V_{21} V_{11}^{-1} (\mu_{11} \mu_{21})),$

$$q = \frac{1}{2} \{ t_{2}'(x_{1}) W_{2}^{-1} t_{2}(x_{1}) - t_{1}'(x_{1}) W_{2}^{-1} t_{1}(x_{1}) + (x_{1} - \mu_{21})' V_{11}^{-1}(x_{1} - \mu_{21}) - (x_{1} - \mu_{11})' V_{11}^{-1}(x_{1} - \mu_{11}) \}$$

$$+ \log[p_{1}(\ell_{12} - \ell_{11})/p_{2}(\ell_{21} - \ell_{22})].$$

$$4^{\circ}$$
. Compute  $m_j = \Phi((q - D't_j(x_1))/\sqrt{D'W_2D})$ ,  $j = 1,2$ .

5°. Compute 
$$\Delta = p_1 f(x_1, \mu_{11}, V_{11}) + p_2 f(x_1, \mu_{21}, V_{11})$$
, and  $L_1 = \Delta^{-1}(p_1 f(x_1, \mu_{11}, V_{11})\ell_{11} + p_2 f(x_1, \mu_{21}, V_{11})\ell_{21}) + C_1$ 

$$L_2 = \Delta^{-1}(p_1 f(x_1, \mu_{11}, V_{11})\ell_{12} + p_2 f(x_1, \mu_{21}, V_{11})\ell_{22}) + C_1$$

$$L_3 = \Delta^{-1}\{\ell_{11} m_1 p_1 f(x_1, \mu_{11}, V_{11}) + \ell_{21} m_2 p_2 f(x_1, \mu_{21}, V_{11}) + \ell_{12} (1 - m_1) p_1 f(x_1, \mu_{11}, V_{11}) + \ell_{22} (1 - m_2) p_2 f(x_1, \mu_{21}, V_{11})\}$$

$$+ C_1 + C_2.$$

- $6^{\circ}$ . Find out the smallest  $i_0$  such that  $L_{i_0} = min(L_1, L_2, L_3)$ . If  $i_0 = 1$  or 2, then we classify the individual into  $H_1$  or  $H_2$ . If  $i_0 = 3$ , then we go on observing  $X_2$ .
- 7°. Compute D'x2. If D'x2  $\leq$  q (D and q have been computed in 3°), we classify  $\alpha$  into H1. Otherwise, we classify  $\alpha$  into H2.

#### 5. THE CASE WHEN PARAMETERS ARE UNKNOWN

In the discussion above, we have assumed that  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$ ,  $\mu_1$ ,  $\mu_2$  and V are all known. In practice, such parameters are usually unknown or partially unknown. In such cases we must assume that some training samples  $Y_{(n)}$  are available to make some estimation on the unknown parameters, which will be denoted by  $\hat{p}_{1n}$ ,  $\hat{p}_{2n}$ ,  $\hat{\mu}_{1n}$ ,  $\hat{\mu}_{2n}$  and  $\hat{V}_{n}$ . Then we use these estimates to replace  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$ ,  $\mu_1$ ,  $\mu_2$  and V in the above-defined algorithm. In this way we get a

rule of discrimination which will be denoted by  $(T_n, \delta_n)$ , whose Bayesian risk is

$$B(T_n,\delta_n) = E(B(T_n(Y_{(n)}),\delta_n(Y_{(n)}))|Y_{(n)}),$$

where  $B(T_n(Y_{(n)}, \delta_n(Y_{(n)}))$  is to be understood as the Bayesian risk of the discrimination rule obtained by the above scheme, on condition that the training sample is fixed as  $Y_{(n)}$ . Since for any  $Y_{(n)}$  it is true that  $B(T_n(Y_{(n)}), \delta_n(Y_{(n)})) \geq B(T^*, \delta^*)$ ,

we shall always have

$$B(T_n, \delta_n) \geq B(T^*, \delta^*).$$

Now we proceed to prove the following theorem.

THEOREM 2. If  $\hat{p}_{1n}$ ,  $\hat{p}_{2n}$ ,  $\hat{\mu}_{1n}$ ,  $\hat{\mu}_{2n}$  and  $\hat{V}_{n}$  are constant estimates of  $p_1$ ,  $p_2$ ,  $\mu_1$ ,  $\mu_2$  and V, respectively, then  $\lim_{n\to\infty} B(T_n, \delta_n) = B(T^*, \delta^*)$ .

The proof of the theorem is based on the following lemma.

LEMMA 1. Denote by  $(\tilde{T}_n, \tilde{\delta}_n)$  the discrimination rule obtained by substituting  $q_{1n}$ ,  $q_{2n}$ ,  $v_{1n}$ ,  $v_{2n}$  and  $v_{2n}$  for  $v_{2n}$ ,  $v_{2n}$ , and  $v_{2n}$ ,  $v_{2n}$ , and  $v_{2n}$ ,  $v_{$ 

$$B(\tilde{T}_n, \tilde{\delta}_n) \rightarrow B(T, \delta)$$
 (9)

if

$$q_{1n} \rightarrow p_1, \quad q_{2n} \rightarrow p_2, \quad v_{1n} \rightarrow u_1, \quad v_{2n} \rightarrow u_2 \quad \text{and} \quad \Sigma_n \rightarrow V.$$
 (10)

*Proof.* We shall use  $G_0(n)$ ,  $G_i(x_{(i)},n)$ ,  $L_{ji}(n)$  to denote the quantities corresponding to  $G_0$ ,  $G_i(x_{(i)})$ ,  $L_{ji}$  in defining  $(\tilde{T}_n,\tilde{\delta}_n)$  by replacing  $p_1$ , etc., by  $q_{1n}$ , etc.

Since it is obvious that

$$B(T^*, \delta^*) = EG_0,$$
  
 $B(\tilde{T}_n, \tilde{\delta}_n) = EG_0(n).$ 

Therefore, on noticing the uniform boundedness of  $G_0$  and  $G_0(n)$  (not exceeding  $\max(x_{ij})$ ), we see that in order to prove the lemma we need only to prove

$$\lim_{n\to\infty} L_{j0}(n) = L_{j0}, \quad j = 1,2,3.$$
 (11)

Since  $L_{10}(n) = q_{1n}\ell_{11} + q_{2n}\ell_{21}$ ,  $L_{20}(n) = q_{1n}\ell_{12} + q_{2n}\ell_{22}$  and  $q_{1n} \rightarrow p_{1}$  and  $q_{2n} \rightarrow p_{2}$ , we see that (11) is true for j = 1,2.

In order to prove (II) for j=3, we use induction. First suppose that k=1. According to the definition, we have

$$L_{30} = p_1 m_1 \ell_{11} + p_2 m_2 \ell_{21} + p_1 (1 - m_1) \ell_{12} + p_2 (1 - m_2) \ell_{22}. \tag{12}$$

$$L_{30}(n) = q_{1n}^{m} l_{11} + q_{2n}^{m} l_{21} + q_{1n}^{(1-m} l_{11}) l_{12} + q_{2n}^{(1-m} l_{21}) l_{22},$$
 (13)

where 
$$m_1 = P(\xi \le 0 | \mu_1, V)$$
,  $m_2 = P(\xi \le 0 | \mu_2, V)$ , 
$$m_{1n} = P(\xi_n \le 0 | \nu_{1n}, \Sigma_n), \qquad m_{2n} = P(\xi_n \le 0 | \nu_{2n}, \Sigma_n),$$
 
$$\xi = x_1^{\prime} V^{-1} (\mu_2 - \mu_1) + \frac{1}{2} \mu_2^{\prime} V^{-1} \mu_2 - \frac{1}{2} \mu_1^{\prime} V^{-1} \mu_1 - \log \frac{p_1(\ell_{11} - \ell_{12})}{p_2(\ell_{22} - \ell_{21})},$$

and 
$$\xi_n = x_1^{1} \Sigma_n^{-1} (v_{2n} - v_{1n}) + \frac{1}{2} v_{2n}^{1} \Sigma_n^{-1} v_{2n} - \frac{1}{2} v_{1n}^{1} \Sigma_n^{-1} v_{1n} - \log \frac{q_{1n}(\ell_{11} - \ell_{12})}{q_{2n}(\ell_{22} - \ell_{21})}$$

It is clear that when (10) is true, the distribution of  $\xi_n$  under  $(v_{in}, \Sigma_n)$  converges to the distribution of  $\xi$  under  $(\mu_i, V)$ , i = 1, 2, which entails

$$m_{1n} \rightarrow m_1$$
,  $m_{2n} \rightarrow m_2$  when  $n \rightarrow \infty$ .

According to (12) and (13), we have  $L_{30}(n) \rightarrow L_{30}$  and the case k=1 is proved. Now we assume that the conclusion of the lemma is true for k-1. Express  $L_{30}$  and  $L_{30}(n)$  as

$$L_{30} = E \min(L_{11}, L_{21}, L_{31}(X_1)),$$
 $L_{30}(n) = E \min(L_{11}(n), L_{21}(n), L_{31}(n,X_1)).$ 

Based on the expressions of  $L_{11}$ ,  $L_{21}$  given in Section 2, we get

$$L_{j1}(n) \rightarrow L_{j1}, \quad j = 1,2.$$
 (14)

Also, considering the expressions of  $L_{31}(X_1)$  and  $L_{31}(n,X_1)$ , in order to prove that (14) is true for j = 3, we need only show that when (10) is true,

$$E(G_2(X_{(2)},n)|X_1) \rightarrow E(G_2(X_{(2)})|X_1)$$
 (15)

for fixed  $X_1$ . For this purpose, we note that to calculate the values of both sides of (15), on condition that  $X_1$  is observed, it is the same as calculating  $EG_1(X_{\{1\}},n)$  and  $EG_1(X_{\{1\}})$  in the original problem with k reduced to k-1. Therefore the truth of (15) for any fixed  $X_1$  follows directly from the induction hypothesis. From this, and the fact that  $G_2(X_{\{2\}},n)$  is uniformly bounded, it follows by the dominated convergence theorem that  $L_{30}(n) \to L_{30}$  for k. Thus we prove (11) and hence the lemma.

Now back to the proof of the theorem. By Lemma 1, for any  $\epsilon>0$ , we can take  $\eta>0$  small enough such that

$$|\hat{p}_{jn} - p_{j}| < \eta, \quad ||\hat{u}_{jn} - u_{j}|| < \eta, \quad j = 1, 2, \quad ||\hat{v}_{n} - v|| < \eta,$$
 (16)

imply

$$|B(T_n(Y_{(n)}), \delta_n(Y_{(n)})) - B(T^*, \delta^*)| < \varepsilon.$$

By consistency we know that when n is large enough, the probability that the inequalities in (16) are true simultaneously is not less than  $1 - \epsilon$ . Also,

noticing that  $B(T_n(Y_{(n)}), \delta_n(Y_{(n)})) \leq M = \max(\ell_{11}, \ell_{12}, \ell_{21}, \ell_{22})$ , we get  $|B(T_n, \delta_n) - B(T^*, \delta^*)| < \epsilon + M_{\epsilon}$ 

for n large enough. This concludes the proof of the theorem.

Usually  $Y_{(n)} = (Y_{11}, \dots, Y_{1n_1}, Y_{21}, \dots, Y_{2n_2})$  where  $Y_{i1}, \dots, Y_{in_i}$  are i.i.d.,  $Y_{i1} \sim N(\mu_i, V)$  under  $H_i$ , i = 1, 2. In this case we use

$$\hat{\mu}_{in} = \frac{1}{n_i} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} Y_{ij}, \quad i = 1,2;$$

$$\hat{V}_n = \frac{1}{n_1 + n_2 - 2} \left( \sum_{j=1}^{2} \sum_{i=1}^{n_i} (Y_{ij} - \hat{\mu}_{in}) (Y_{ij} - \hat{\mu}_{in})' \right)$$

to estimate  $\mu_1$ ,  $\mu_2$  and V. Also we use  $\hat{p}_{in} = n_i/n$  to estimate  $p_i$ , i = 1,2, where we assume that  $n_1 \sim B(n,p_1)$ ,  $n_1 + n_2 = n$ ,  $0 < p_1 < 1$ .

THEOREM 3. Under the conditions above,  $B\left(T_n(Y_{(n)}), \delta_n(Y_{(n)})\right)$  converges to  $B(T^*, \delta^*)$  in exponential rate, i.e., for any  $\epsilon > 0$ , there exists a constant C > 0 depending upon  $\epsilon$  but not upon n, such that

$$P(|B(T_n(Y_{(n)})) - B(T^*, \delta^*)| \ge \varepsilon) = O(e^{-Cn}).$$
 (17)

Proof. The proof runs largely along the line as in Theorem 1, with the help of the following known result (see Petrov (1975)).

LEMMA 2. Let  $X_1$ ,  $X_2$ , ... be an i.i.d. sequence of random variables,  $EX_1 = 0$ , and there exists  $\delta > 0$  such that

$$E(e^{tX_1}) < \infty$$
, for  $|t| < \delta$ .

Then for any  $\epsilon > 0$  there exists a constant C depending upon  $\epsilon$  but not upon n, such that

$$P(|\overline{X}_n| \ge \varepsilon) = O(e^{-Cn}),$$

where  $\overline{X}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i$ .

Turning to the proof of the theorem, we note that the random variables  $\xi_1 \sim N(0,\sigma^2)$ ,  $\xi_1^2$  and  $\xi_2 - p_1$  defined by

$$P(\xi_2 = 1) = 1 - P(\xi_2 = 0) = p_1$$

all satisfy the condition of Lemma 2. From this it is easily seen that for any given  $\eta > 0$  we have

$$P(|\hat{p}_{in} - p_i| \ge n) = O(e^{-Cn}), \quad i = 1,2$$
 (18)

$$P(\|\hat{\mu}_{in} - \mu_i\| \ge n) = O(e^{-Cn}), \quad i = 1,2$$
 (19)

$$P(\|\hat{V}_{n} - V\| \ge \eta) = O(e^{-Cn}).$$
 (20)

Now given arbitrarily  $\varepsilon$  > 0, according to Lemma 1, there exists  $\eta$  > 0 such that

$$\begin{aligned} \{|\hat{p}_{in}(Y_{(n)}) - p_i| < \eta, \ ||\hat{\mu}_{in}(Y_{(n)}) - \mu_i|| < \eta, \ i = 1,2; \ ||\hat{V}_n(Y_{(n)}) - V|| < \eta\} \\ \Rightarrow |B(T_n(Y_{(n)}), \delta_n(Y_{(n)})) - B(T^*, \delta^*)| < \varepsilon. \end{aligned}$$

From this and (18)-(20), we get

$$P(|B(T_{n}(Y_{(n)}), \delta_{n}(Y_{(n)})) - B(T^{*}, \delta^{*})| \geq \varepsilon)$$

$$\leq \sum_{i=1}^{2} P(|\hat{p}_{in} - p_{i}| \geq n) + \sum_{i=1}^{2} P(||\hat{\mu}_{in} - \mu_{i}|| \geq n) + P(||\hat{V}_{n} - V|| \geq n)$$

$$= 0(e^{-Cn}).$$

and the proof is concluded.

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